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ABSTRACT

This irregular Bulletin discusses aspects of curriculum development in the social sciences at national and local levels in Scotland. This issue contains six articles. Dissemination and Implementation in Curriculum Development recommends using mass media to advertise curriculum projects, familiarize teachers with new projects, and increase local school district involvement in project development. Attitudes to Education for the Environment outlines symbolic, empirical, and aesthetic approaches to teaching about conservation. Schools Council Geography 14-18 Project reviews the project set up in 1970 to initiate a geography curriculum for more able pupils. The Role of the School Library Resource Centre shows teachers how to set up a multimedia resource centre without prior knowledge of library science. Problem Vision for a Troubled Society presents observations on social studies in the United States, concentrating on the debate about the relationship between content, process, and values. Teaching about the Third World discusses reasons for studying about the Third World and chronicles recent improvements in the subject area in Scotland. (Author/DB)

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Foreword

This is the fifth issue of the Bulletin of the Scottish Centre for Social Subjects. A free copy is being sent to every Education Authority and to every secondary school in Scotland. Additional copies (price 50p) can be obtained from the Secretary of the Centre. Cheques/Postal Orders should be made payable to the Scottish Centre for Social Subjects.

The Editorial Committee wishes to thank the authors of the articles in this issue. It should be noted that the opinions expressed are not to be regarded as the official views of the Scottish Education Department, the Consultative Committee on the Curriculum or the Scottish Certificate of Education Examination Board. We would value comment on the issues raised in these articles.

In future issues of the Bulletin we hope to discuss other aspects of curriculum development in the Social Subjects at both national and local levels. Anyone who wishes to make a personal contribution in the form of an article of a general nature or concerned with a particular teaching project is invited to contact the Director of the Centre.

In addition to an annual Bulletin, the Centre publishes a Newsletter of national and local activities twice a year and two copies of each issue are sent direct to every secondary school in Scotland.

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Editorial

The publication of Curriculum Paper 15* "The Social Subjects in Secondary Schools" is of great importance for the work of the Centre. The Paper indicates some of the main philosophical and psychological views which have influenced recent developments in the Social Subjects in Scotland, and which have also influenced the thinking of the Central Committee. It argues that to achieve balance in the whole curriculum a contribution from the Social Subjects is essential, and that to achieve balance within the Social Subjects, in view of the distinctive nature of each of these, some movement towards increased breadth of study is desirable. It recommends that in the development of the curriculum in the Social Subjects consideration of courses should be taken beyond the limit of content to the understanding of concepts, the development of appropriate skills and techniques, and the fostering of attitudes.

The Central Committee has considered in some depth how far the curriculum should be discipline-based and how far based on integrated studies. It does not find it possible to subscribe entirely and without reservation to either approach but it has recommended the contribution of discipline-based teaching believing that this offers an orderly progression of study, a continual reinforcement of concepts, ideas and skills, and scope for the adoption of a multi-disciplinary approach. The value of the integrated approach is also recognised provided that a foundation of discipline-based studies has been established in SI and SII. On the basis of its consideration of the merits and drawbacks of both approaches to the curriculum, the views of the Committee on the place of each of the Social Subjects at successive stages in the secondary school are given in some detail in the Paper.

The part of the Paper which may prove to be of greatest direct benefit to teachers is that devoted to a curriculum development sequence for each of the Social Subjects, showing the relationship between aims and objectives, content, methodology and evaluation. The sequences are illustrated by examples taken from material prepared by working parties set up by the Central Committee and available for schools from the Centre. Details of these are available in the Newsletters of the Centre and requests from teachers for further information about them are always welcomed.

Although publications of central agencies may be persuasive in argument and helpful in intention they are not always effective in the classroom. The Central Committee hopes that the views expressed and the recommendations made in the Paper will be considered in relation to Curriculum Bulletins with their emphasis on materials for use in schools and practical guidance for teachers. The first of these, which was published in 1973, dealt with non-certificate courses in Social Subjects in SIII and SIV. It is hoped that within the next year Bulletins in Economics, Geography and History in SI/SII will appear. Other issues presently under investigation

* Curriculum Paper 15 *The Social Subjects in Secondary Schools*, HMSO 1976. £1·75.

by the Committee and influencing to an increasing extent the work of the Centre are Primary/Secondary Liaison, the Needs of Least Academic Pupils and Certificate Courses.

The Central Committee hopes that there will be a wide-ranging discussion of the Curriculum Paper by all those concerned in the teaching situation—class teachers, headteachers, education authorities and colleges of education. It welcomes comments on the Paper and it is willing to be represented at any meeting at which it is to be discussed.

T. KEITH ROBINSON

Dissemination and Implementation in Curriculum Development

R. F. DICK, HMI*

Curriculum development involves the planning of change within education, change of courses, change of teaching styles and change of ideas about learning. It presumes that the changes advocated will make pupils' learning more effective. Thus, like any change, curriculum developments must be properly implemented to achieve their fullest possible effectiveness. Within the Social Subjects in Scotland it is only recently that curriculum projects sponsored by the Scottish Central Committee on Social Subjects are beginning to be made available to schools in the form of materials and ideas. It is therefore too soon to make any final assessment about the degree to which they have been implemented. One of the few hard facts existing about implementation is the quality of materials sold by the Social Subjects Centre in the form of syllabuses and "kits." But sales figures are an inadequate indicator of the degree of implementation since there is no guarantee that the purchased materials are being used at all or, if used, that this is in a way which is appropriate and consonant with the underlying ideas of the project.

If evidence about implementation is so limited why should we be concerned? Firstly, experience of innovation in general and more particularly curriculum innovation in the USA and in Europe indicates that the process of implementation is likely to be both lengthy and uneven.[1] Secondly, some "straws in the wind" give us an indication that the process may not be entirely dissimilar in the Scottish system. Reports from evaluation studies, contacts by members of staff of the Centre with teachers in different parts of Scotland, a report by a working party of the Consultative Committee on the Curriculum on "Communication and Implementation of Aims in Secondary Education" all give strong hints that there is very limited awareness of the structure of curriculum development in Scotland, even of the existence of bodies like the National Centres, not to mention crucial details about particular projects.

Given the likely difficulties of the widespread implementation of curriculum projects, this article will attempt to consider some of the insights of innovation theory which might prove helpful to those concerned with more effective implementation. It will deal particularly with dissemination, that is the process of deliberately spreading a project's aims, ideas and

* This article was prepared before Mr Dick left the staff of the Centre in June 1975 to join the Inspectorate. The views expressed in the article are personal and are not to be regarded as those of the Scottish Education Department.

[1] See, for example, the *Handbook on Curriculum Development* published by OECD 1975.

materials to potential adopters to the extent that they understand them well enough to use them in schools should they wish to do so.

Barriers to Implementation

Before looking at the process of dissemination in more detail it may be as well to consider why innovation does not immediately take root deeply and widely. The first group of factors concern attitudes. Curriculum change is a complex business. Even when a project's efforts are only concentrated on the production of materials other factors are inevitably linked when it comes to using these in the classroom. The new materials might involve changes in methods, content or classroom organisation and could, therefore, in the end affect attitudes towards the proposed project. Inevitably, to a greater or lesser degree, a project will attempt to bring about changes in teacher attitudes. Attitude change is an extremely complex study in itself focussing on individual personality and relationships with other people but those concerned with dissemination should be aware that many people have a deep-rooted suspicion of change in general and of those who are attempting to induce change. Again, it is obvious that the more radical a project is in wishing to change attitudes the bigger the barrier to implementation.

The second group of factors tending to inhibit implementation concern resources. These can involve time, money and influence. Any curriculum change will involve an investment of scarce resources of money and manpower which in the present financial climate may be difficult to obtain. Where new ideas involve more training, discussion and co-operation between other groups, time may be an even more vital factor. As teachers' professional commitments increase this may become an even bigger constraint. Besides, many people wishing to implement curriculum developments may not have the influence or authority to persuade others whose permission or participation is necessary, to do so. Very often, of course, these problems of time, money and influence interact and thus become potent inhibitors of change. If these are allied to lukewarm or negative attitudes the problem is magnified.

The third set of barriers concern organisational structures. Barriers here come at two levels. The first of these is the need for an appropriate structure linking the development project to the potential adopters—the teachers in the schools. Very often at present this linkage is through one person from a school or authority or through a single in-service course or conference, or perhaps a visit to a pilot school. There is no sustained back-up support to deal with problems arising and to feed in helpful ideas to isolated individuals. A barrier at a second level comes within the schools themselves where there is often no supportive work with teachers introducing innovations. The school management may not be aware of the new roles which many innovations require of teachers. They may not be aware that their organisations are incompatible with a particular innovation even if they wish to introduce it. Projects involving integration, team teaching and methods such as field-work are particularly

likely to encounter this problem, and in many cases teachers who have been willing to implement a project have abandoned it because it has proved incompatible with the school's structure.

The Process of Dissemination

It is easy enough to outline the barriers to implementation of an innovation but much more difficult to generalise about how the barriers may be scaled. Yet curriculum development agencies and working parties should attempt to pursue policies which will at least take account of these barriers. An effective policy of dissemination is a first essential.

The process of dissemination itself can be broken down into two stages. The first is that of making potential adopters of the innovation aware of and interested in it and the second stage is that of giving them sufficient knowledge and understanding of the innovation to implement it properly if they choose to do so. The two stages are different in complexity and require different strategies.

Awareness about these stages should lead to consideration about dissemination almost from the start of the project. At present most of the resources of working parties and of the Centre are devoted to innovation and development with thoughts about the spread of these coming relatively late in the life of the project. Of course, much of this is natural and inevitable. The Scottish system of working parties containing mostly "part-time" curriculum developers means that the process is a long one. Full-time employment over and above a commitment to curriculum development inevitably means that working parties have to concentrate on what they see as the essentials of their remit. Exhaustion, overwork, absences and lack of continuity of membership all tend to make working parties focus on short-term processes, of which the most tangible is the production of materials in the form of kits. Nevertheless early consideration of the process of dissemination and the barriers to be overcome may have an effect both on the scope and nature of the development and the formulation of strategies which will at least minimise the inevitable difficulties.

The First Stage

At the very least, more time and resources could be devoted throughout a project's life to the process of making potential adopters aware of and interested in it. Here the use of "mass media" techniques can be used to reach as wide a target audience as possible (lectures, newsletters, project bulletins, educational press, advertising, perhaps even radio/TV). A certain amount of positive promotion should not be frowned on. We may experience some hesitancy about "selling" educational ideas but if there is to be effective communication then a variety of means and media should be used to suit particular purposes. For example, the educational press should be more aware of current projects and encouraged to report regularly about them. Special supplements in the Times Educational Supplement include a mass of detail about developments in the Social

Subjects in England but very little about the important Scottish developments. Perhaps one reason for this is our reluctance to feed news about projects to the media instead of waiting to be approached. Perhaps the Centre could give a lead here.

Closely bound up with effective communication and interrelated to attitude barriers is the style of language used to inform teachers about developments. Curriculum development, relatively new itself, tends to be expressed in language unfamiliar to teachers thus producing complaints about jargon and often leading to what has been called the "communications gap" between project and teachers. Of course, complaints about jargon may well be only surface manifestation of a deeper unease about particular developments which call for a change in teaching style or attitude, or perhaps even deeper hostility at what many see to be change imposed from the outside, but there is a responsibility at all levels of education to communicate simply and effectively to those unused to specialised language who, when they hear the word "taxonomy", reach for their guns. This is not a criticism of specialist terms or of the theory which must lie at the base of any new project, but rather a plea that, at the "awareness and interest" stages of dissemination, technicalities and theory should be kept to the minimum necessary for effective communication. This stage of dissemination, therefore, can take place very early in the life of the project and continue throughout in the hope that the maximum number of possible adopters will become aware of its existence and its aims.

The Second Stage

This stage, which involves giving potential adopters enough understanding and appreciation of the innovation to adopt it if they wish, is much more complex, bringing barriers of attitudes, resources and structures more heavily into play. A very few tentative generalisations can be offered here about the strategies of dissemination which might be adopted for the purpose of persuading people to adopt favourable attitudes towards an innovation. The first of these is that inter-personal contact is likely to be more effective at this stage. Thus while mass media techniques are useful to make audiences interested and aware, the type of in-service training at the second stage needs to concentrate less on the formal lecture and more on small-group work, possibly getting people together in some kind of workshop involving the new idea or technique or at least to allow thorough discussion on a small-group basis. Another important consideration is that the process is likely to be more effective if it is relatively sustained rather than on a one-off basis. This has implications for the pattern of in-service training, suggesting that half-day, or one-day courses are likely to be most useful for the process of making people interested and aware of projects, rather than giving them in-depth knowledge.

Another factor which increases the likelihood of adoption is the "trialability" of the innovation. If it can be tried out on a limited basis and appears to be relatively simple (this relates to the communication

problem) then it is more likely to be adopted than if it can only be tried on an all or nothing basis.

Two of the most important ideas coming from innovation theory relate to the use of "change agents" and "opinion leaders." A change agent is a person associated with a project but also linked in some way to the potential adopters and who tries to persuade or influence them to adopt it. In the field of education, therefore, he could be a lecturer, an adviser, a head teacher, an HMI, or a team member associated with a local area. In effect he acts as a communication link between the project and the teachers. There is some research to indicate that the effectiveness of a change agent relates to the time and effort he can put into each contact with a potential adopter, the degree to which adopters see him as being orientated to their needs and the amount of empathy between them. Change agents will differ in their effectiveness for different people, and some research is needed to identify the most effective change agents in the Scottish system. I will come back to links between project and "clients" later in this article.

Opinion leaders are individuals who can influence potential adopters informally with relative frequency. They are very often within the same system as the potential adopters (*e.g.* a principal teacher influencing members of his department). It is important for the strategy of dissemination to use opinion leaders, and economical of time and effort for change agents to work with and through them, yet it is less easy to identify who these opinion leaders are, especially within an education system which is relatively "closed off" between different regions and, indeed, between schools. There is some evidence that those who adopt an innovation early on tend to be opinion leaders, which implies that there should be greater use of "pilot school" teachers and teachers using the innovation during the dissemination process. This might imply a different sort of relationship with the "pilot" schools to which I will return. In any case, teachers do tend to be influenced more by colleagues than "outsiders", the implication being that communication must be lateral at the same time as vertical; or, in other words, that there must be a move away from what has been called the "centre-periphery" model of curriculum development. The use of relatively sustained inter-personal contact and of change agents and opinion leaders will still not overcome the suspicion of many teachers, but will at least make sure that the context for reception of the innovation is less negative.

The changing of attitudes, which are relatively intangible and deep-rooted in an individual's personality and temperament, is a complex problem; yet resources, although much more tangible, present just as great a barrier especially in an era when restraint is the order of the day. Only a magician could devise a dissemination strategy which could overcome problems such as lack of money to purchase new materials, lack of time and staff to participate in training, or insufficient influence to persuade those with control over time, staff and money to release these for a particular project. Nevertheless, working parties should be aware that certain kinds of development will magnify these problems. Integrated studies involving

some degree of team teaching are a good example of a type of innovation which can only succeed if the school administration is persuaded that this is a worthwhile investment of their time, money and manpower. But even the adoption of curriculum development kits may need a special allocation of money and some in-service training. A dissemination strategy may be difficult to devise but these barriers are more likely to be overcome if those with control or influence over the resources at local and school level are aware of and involved in a project as much as possible from the beginning.

The Third Stage

This involves discussions of possible structures linking a project from Centre to local levels. At present the system is broadly that there is a curriculum development team at national (or regional) level which "does" the development work while the ideas and/or materials are tried out at local level by several pilot school teachers. Regional authorities, advisers and even head teachers may not know very much about the background of the project. The closer involvement of the education authorities is usually attempted after the materials or syllabuses are completed and a programme of in-service training and dissemination comes into being. By this time the working party is nearing the end of its life so that the possibility of a sustained and continuing structure of contact linking those with special knowledge of the project to possible adopters is limited. The "after-care" and successful implementation of the project are, therefore, endangered.

I believe that the lack of an appropriate structure linking the Centre to the schools comes near to the heart of the dissemination problem and this is a difficulty which needs to be tackled at the highest level. I would suggest that a possible way of overcoming this is to try a different pattern of working party and local and pilot school involvement in curriculum development. The central team for the project might represent regional education authorities as widely as possible with assistant directors or advisers being consulted from the outset about choice of members. Once the team has considered the broad strategy it should think about the implications of this for dissemination. The process of making as wide a target audience as possible aware about the project should begin at this stage in its life, using some of the techniques outlined above and with a team member being in overall charge of spreading information. The team members from the local areas should be responsible for establishing very close links with those responsible for curriculum development locally (in the majority of cases these would be advisers), thus providing for a two-way communication process between Centre and local areas.

When the team is at the stage of wanting to develop syllabuses, ideas, methods or materials for classroom use those responsible for curriculum development at local level should again be widely consulted about the choice of "pilot" teachers and schools. At this point the team might decentralise its activities to some degree, working with the pilot school

teachers or with groups of schools to develop materials/ideas. Here the team members from the local areas would have to be heavily involved and at this stage would have to make the head teachers aware of and involved in the project. This does not play down the role of the adviser. The team member would have to work in close collaboration with the local authority and the adviser. In some cases the team member might be an adviser or local panel leader, but because of the breadth and depth of their functions advisers inevitably find it difficult to give concentrated attention to one project. The team members from the local areas would be curriculum developers but also change agents responsible for the lateral spread of the project's ideas through close contact with the schools and teachers. The central team would, of course, also be having regular meetings to monitor the progress of the pilot scheme and take into account local initiatives. It would have final responsibility for the end-product of the project (in the shape of a report or kit) but at the same time a broader local base of awareness, knowledge and involvement at all levels would have been created.

Final dissemination strategy could take place bearing in mind some of the ideas outlined above. However, there would be the possibility of achieving the spread of ideas laterally as well as vertically. The advisers and team members from the localities would be the "linking agencies" from Centre to the local areas and be able to give relatively sustained back-up support to teachers trying out the innovation. Much use would hopefully be made of the broader base of pilot school teachers who in many cases would act as opinion leaders persuading their colleagues to follow their example. The machinery of local meetings and teacher panels would vary from place to place. By the time the working party was phased out there would be a much wider nucleus of teachers aware of and knowledgeable about the project, plus a potential structure for further spread using advisers, locally involved teachers and others.

One radical implication is, of course, that the terms of appointment of central team members would have to be different. Local representatives could not carry the burdens outlined above over and above their normal work so that there would have to be a system of secondment for a spell. The more I worked under our system of curriculum development the more I became convinced that some form of secondment was necessary and I feel that this nettle must be grasped sooner or later, always keeping in mind that it would not be wholly desirable to move completely away from our present system of getting the "grass roots" benefits of teachers in service.

The structure outlined above has its obvious weaknesses. It is certainly not streamlined, it may be more expensive and it would rely heavily on very good-quality local representatives. There has been no mention of the important barrier of structures within schools. It would not produce a revolution in curriculum change since change involving human society does not work in this way. What I hope it might do, along with the other ideas, is to provoke some thought and discussion about how we might promote curriculum development more effectively to produce worthwhile change in the classroom.

Attitudes to Education for the Environment

D. ALDRIDGE, *Assistant Director, (Conservation/Education)*
Countryside Commission for Scotland

Conservation Education

The report by Scottish HMIs "Environmental Education" makes the point that conservation is not a curriculum subject but an attitude of mind.[1]

Over the last ten years this view has become widely accepted.[2] Environmental education has been defined as "the process of recognising values and clarifying concepts in order to develop the skills and attitudes necessary to understand and appreciate the inter-relations among man, his culture and his bio-physical surroundings."[3] Conservation education is clearly only that part of environmental education which is concerned with increasing our awareness of the problems of conservation of the earth's resources.

I want to discuss the question of the conservation of resources and conservation education. We have seen that educationists aim to "develop attitudes" and "recognise values" and this takes us into what Bloom[4] called the "affective" sphere concerned with attitudes and values rather than the "cognitive" sphere concerned with knowledge. We should remember however that this distinction cannot be maintained indefinitely in our discussions; it is simply a convenience.

The Development of Attitudes

Attitudes to the psychologists are concepts which help to explain human behaviour between the stage of the stimulus and the stage of the observed response, so they are not simply opinions held but briefly and then discarded. They can be expected to be firmly held beliefs about the world and to be related to other views held by the individual. The psychologists tell us that attitudes are strongly influenced in early childhood by parents, by the home environment, by school. They stress that many attitudes are formed in this primary age group because it is then that a child is learning the skills of communication. I want to return to this point later.

Suppose then that the Countryside Commission for Scotland is given a remit to change the attitudes of young people who visit the countryside and wishes to make them aware of the need for conservation of the countryside's resources. What a task that would be! It implies that we know what are the "best" attitudes, that attitudes ought to be changed, and that attitudes can be changed. Well, how can they be changed? By education? Or by propaganda messages?

Didactic and Heuristic Teaching

Research suggests that attitudes cannot easily be changed by direct attacks on personal beliefs or on a person's way of looking at things.[5] Many attitudes are deep seated and often derive from group attitudes, hence they cannot be changed by unsubtle techniques. Change is more likely to be brought about by discovery or heuristic techniques, where the student makes the change himself, than by didactic lectures. The lecture may be seen as an attack and can produce resistance to the values being propounded by the man at the lectern. Discovery methods have another advantage in that such methods of learning give the student an opportunity to explore and resolve some of the inner conflicts which the new ideas will have introduced. Until the conflicts are resolved the new values will be unacceptable. With a lecturing approach there is unlikely to be time for this process to even begin before another new idea is thrust upon the victim.

Group Discussion and Attitudes

Another equally important teaching technique is, of course, the group discussion. As we have suggested, many attitudes are group attitudes and thus this technique is a useful way of examining old and new values. Such discussions must be rational explorations of the implications of the new ideas and attitudes, but remember that in the Age of Reason, Godwin and others made the mistake of thinking that "the whole species will become reasonable and virtuous." It was the psychologist Dr Mace who, in our own century, explained Godwin's error (with all the advantages of 20th century hindsight)—his mistake, says Mace, was "not that he over-estimated the importance of education but that he under-estimated the difficulties of protecting man against the forces of Unreason." So the discussion groups must also look at the forces of unreason and they will surely find many examples to draw upon.

Independent Judgement and Propaganda

Propaganda is concerned with ready-made judgements; education seeks to encourage independent judgement. As educationists we are concerned with teaching students *how* to think about environmental issues and the propagandist is concerned to tell them *what* to think. The forces of unreason are abroad today with all the tricks of the propagandist—misrepresentation of facts, presentation of only one side of an argument and over-simplification of highly complex issues, to name but three of the most common.

A Complexity of Attitudes

As educationists we know that environmental questions are very complex and that attitudes towards these questions are also many and varied, perhaps none more varied than our attitudes to the countryside. What is your attitude? Do you have a single attitude?—do you want to

conserve the countryside? All of it? Let's take some examples and see where you fit in. Do you gain enjoyment in the countryside from seeing what is round the next bend, over the next hill, from touring, from exploring, from novelty? Are you an *excursionist*? Do you like to get away from the city and urban scene into the country, do you like to *escape*, do you seek the challenge of adventure, even the element of danger—now that they've made Sauchiehall Street a pedestrian precinct? Or do you just want to get away from your worries and cares to *relax*, watch the sun beat down on you, breathe the fresh air, let the waves lap gently up to your deck chair by the lochside? Maybe you want more action than this when you visit the country, competitive *sport* perhaps, excitement and above all fun, the fun of speeding across water maybe? Or do you live in the countryside and gain your enjoyment from seeing the *land in good heart*, from knowing that your ancestors made its beauty (with a bit of assistance from the Almighty) and do you see all living things in the countryside as either useful or pestilent, including Homo Touristica, and do you gain strength in the knowledge that man was given *dominion* over all living things? There are even some visitors who gain their pleasures from the quiet contemplation of beauty, an *aesthetic* attitude you might say. There are some mountaineers who find inspiration and enjoyment in nature's sublimities—a sort of *quasi-religious* attitude. And there are *conservationists* who gain enjoyment from the variety of living things in the countryside and from helping to ensure the continuance of this variety. Will there always be a countryside? They might answer: if man can develop an awareness of the fact that he is part of nature.

Now do you want to change *all* those attitudes to the resource and to its enjoyment by present and future generations? I doubt it. I doubt too that the Countryside (Scotland) Act 1967 embraces all those forms of enjoyment. The Act's wording deliberately links enjoyment and conservation of the resources, which must mean conservation for future generations. The Act gave the Countryside Commission a major educational remit.

Three Teaching Approaches for Conservation

It follows, therefore, that we all are concerned with teaching the younger generation about *how* to think about the kind of environment that they will need. Over the last 30 years three complementary and successful approaches[6] have been tried.

The first approach uses the environment for field work in a single discipline in order to discover knowledge and skills in that subject. The fieldwork generates much of the students' motivation. If we speak of the principles of education involved here (using Phenix's terms[7 8]) the following elements may be employed in this approach to environmental education:

(a) the *symbolic*, by which we mean the skills of writing, drawing, painting, photography, measuring or surveying.

(b) the *empirical*, by which we mean the skills of devising hypotheses, testing them and employing elementary scientific method.

(c) the *aesthetic* skill of perception of the environment, and

(d) the *synnoetic* skill of those inter-personal relations which are often developed in group work and in group discussion.

Now there is in this approach to environmental education a very definite attitude to the resource which is not apparent at first sight. The resource is regarded as a reservoir of teaching material to be used for generating a particular educational activity. So the teacher pre-selects the material, say a treescape for a painting, a pond for biological study of amphibians, a river valley for geographical field sketching, and then devises the learning situation.

The second approach in environmental education is to focus attention on one specific locality and to examine its character by "point" study. This is best done by starting with the home area, for in this way the student learns the grammar of field work and also gains a basis for future comparative work. Point studies have proved most successful in ethnology and in geography and it is worth noting that one of these is not a school subject and yet it is a vital component of environmental awareness. Point studies can demonstrate that the home area appears to be ordinary but in fact has certain unique qualities. As these studies are usually beyond the capacities of a single subject discipline or subject teacher they are most effective when they are treated as inter-disciplinary field work exercises. Thus a fifth principle of education is introduced, what Phenix has called:

(e) the *synoptic*, that is the skills of environmental understanding through integrated studies which demonstrate inter-relationships.

This second approach to environmental education, like the first we looked at, implies an attitude to the resource being used. Instead of thinking of the resource as a reservoir from which elements can be taken for subject study, in this case we think of the resource as a unity which must be understood.

I propose to call *the third approach* to environmental education, conservation education. We have seen that it is only a part of environmental education and I think it follows that it should be used in conjunction with the two other approaches. It attempts to go beyond inter-disciplinary studies—say between ecology and geography—to effect a much more complex multi-disciplinary study. The characteristic of this kind of approach, of conservation education, is that it is concerned with change—to identify changes, the nature of change, the rate of change, the impact of change, the implications or the consequences of change. It is therefore concerned with the relevance of both time and space to the evolution of landscapes. It takes us from the synoptic view we have just examined, which is essentially analytical, to the synthesis which composes realistic

pictures of landscapes and environmental problems. To the principles already enumerated it adds the last of Phenix's list:

(f) the *ethical*, by which we mean the skills which help us to recognise needs and obligations in society and help us towards the self-formulation of codes of behaviour as responsible individuals.

Such an over-view of many curriculum and non-curriculum subjects might suggest that the third approach to environmental education will generate another attitude to the resource, and this is indeed the case. The view is that the resource is much more than just an educational resource, a tool, a reservoir or even a place that students ought to understand. There is a significant difference between understanding and awareness. A man can understand that a particular plant is extremely rare and know a great deal about its importance and he can then bend down and pull it up by the roots. Those of us who have seen this happen in a teaching situation have discovered for ourselves the great difference between understanding and awareness. The attitude to the resource in this third approach replaces understanding with the more all-embracing "awareness" of the resource's significance.

Countryside Commission for Scotland Courses

The Countryside Commission for Scotland in running training courses for rangers and interpreters and for those who plan visitor centres[9] sets out to change attitudes and to introduce conservation education by team teaching, by multi-disciplinary work, by discovery and group work techniques, by encouraging active involvement in conservation work and by training course members in those skills.

Landscapes of the Mind

We particularly stress one important group of skills in such work—communication skills—because it is in learning such skills that we mostly acquire new attitudes, but there is also another reason. Conservation education is about both the perceived environment of our bio-physical and cultural landscapes and it is also about what has been variously described as the communicated environments, psychological landscapes or the landscapes of the mind.[10]

Some people may doubt that there are "landscapes of the mind" so those attending Countryside Commission courses will see such a landscape simulated by means of colour transparencies presented on three screens. My camera, which is capable only of subjective judgment and selection, recorded a landscape without figures which has, nevertheless, been profoundly influenced at almost every point by people. This is the Scottish countryside, or is it? The programme deliberately sets out to stimulate and provoke discussion. For example, many of the scenes are remote from the cities in which most of us choose to live and so some would say the scenery is wild, and others that wilderness values have been so impaired that wilderness is in the mind of some of the most resistant

geological formations in the world and yet they are vulnerable to the pressures of developers and admiring public alike. Like many other landscapes it is destined to slide further along the spectrum from rural to urban, without too many people being aware of the change, unless we sharpen their perceptive powers!

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Schools Council Geography 14-18 Project: a Strategy for Development

H. TOLLEY, *a former director of the project and now Lecturer in Education at the University of Nottingham.*

The Schools Council Geography 14-18 Project was set up in 1970 to initiate a programme of curriculum development for more able pupils which would offer them an intellectually exacting study and contribute more substantially to their general education. The Project's terms of reference thus reflected a growing concern that the geography being taught in schools placed too much emphasis on description and simplistic forms of explanation, and that insufficient attention was being given to the students' understanding of the subject's important new concepts, models and methods of enquiry. It was anticipated that the Project's work, centred on the School of Education at the University of Bristol, would last until 1974, but in the event it was twice extended by the Schools Council and did not officially terminate until December, 1975. What follows is a brief attempt to summarise the Project's main conclusions and to indicate some of the implications of its work.

Curriculum development: product or process?

To the outside observer the main task facing the Project at the outset of its work probably appeared to be simple enough—after all the precedents were plain for all to see. Many teachers were already familiar with the publications of the American High School Geography Project and were aware of the work of the early curriculum development projects in Britain. The image of curriculum development created by the style of these projects undoubtedly generated an expectation that Geography 14-18 would initiate a development programme similar to those of its predecessors. The early work of the Project team would be centred on the analysis of research findings on cognitive and other aspects of personal development, the identification of concepts and key ideas and their structuring into courses of study, and the formulation of aims and objectives. This would eventually result in the production of experimental teaching materials which would then be subjected to trials in a limited number of pilot schools. Once evaluated these materials would be refined for publication along with the teachers' guides; the Project team would disband to their new posts in university departments; dissemination of the suitably-packaged products would be left to the publisher and to those responsible for in-service courses.

However, the Project's exploratory research suggested that effective curriculum development in Geography 14-18 could not be achieved by following a simple RDD (Research, Development, Dissemination) model

of this kind. Analyses of earlier attempts to change the curriculum in this way had already begun by the early 1970s to yield some significant conclusions. It had become apparent, for example, that if the materials devised by curriculum development projects are to realise their full potential, the teachers using them must understand not only the structure of ideas which they embody, but how these are related to the forms of enquiry by which they have been derived. Otherwise they will be unable to question their students perceptively and to give them insights into the deeper meaning and significance of these ideas. Teachers must also have the ability and confidence to adapt their personal teaching styles to accommodate the more flexible forms of classroom interaction and management which are often implicit in new materials. The American High School Geography Project team found that while they could identify many important concepts in geography and structure them into learning activities which made students think for themselves, exercise judgments and reach decisions, it was also necessary for them to prepare Teacher Education Units to help teachers to use the material correctly.

It had also become apparent that if many of the innovations proposed by curriculum development projects were to succeed they needed to be accompanied by changes in the ways in which schools organise such matters as the allocation of resources, timetabling and collaboration between colleagues both within and between subject departments. The problem is that these often represent more substantial innovations than those originally proposed for changing the curriculum—a dilemma which has been called an educational "Catch 22". What this suggested to the Project was that the effective and sustained implementation of curriculum changes in Geography 14-18 would affect how people work as opposed to their nominal acceptance of proposed innovations, and that this required much more than the development and diffusion of new teaching materials. In other words, it needed the adoption of a strategy for development which saw curriculum development as a social process and not just as a product, and which sought to bring about changes in the formal and informal organisation of institutions themselves. It therefore became a question of asking not just what changes should be made in the content and methods of geography teaching and how these could be encapsulated in a set of teaching materials but how the geography curriculum system at 14-18 really works. This made it necessary to examine the way in which curriculum decisions are reached in schools and in particular at the influence exerted by external examinations.

Syllabus revision or curriculum change?

The Project concluded from these analyses that the school curriculum in geography 14-18 is caught up in a vicious circle of under-development with teachers and examination boards each blaming the other for their slow response to the rapid changes taking place not just in the subject but in schools themselves consequent upon secondary re-organisation. At its worst the situation has all the elements of the old "chicken and the

egg" conundrum about it. The examination board's examiners do not set innovatory questions because they think that the students will not have been prepared for them by their teachers; the teachers on the other hand do not risk teaching innovatory topics or experiment with their teaching methods because they know from past experience that the examiners are unlikely to set questions on them. The result is dynamic conservatism in which positive feedback is continually reinforcing the system interrupted only by periodic revisions of the syllabus. Even these well-intentioned reforms do not always live up to people's expectations of them. Certainly syllabuses can be modified to reduce the long-distance endurance test which the old regional cover demanded, more precise definitions of objectives can replace vague statements of aims, and question papers can incorporate data-response questions which make the examination seem less of a memory test. But what about the problem-solving, decision-making, simulations, group work and individual enquiry which new developments in geography are supposed to foster? Unless the assessment system positively encourages them through the form of the examination they will remain pious hopes because there is no inducement for teachers to change their curricula to accommodate them. In other words what the students actually learn in geography in terms of their ability to work independently, co-operate with others, make decisions and exercise judgments will not have been changed. In fact, the likelihood is that they will continue to do the same things as they have always done in geography lessons such as receiving information and ideas, copying notes, completing maps and interpreting diagrams and photographs. The old worn out parts of the syllabus may have been replaced but the curriculum has remained the same; in effect there has been innovation without change.

Curriculum development in geography 14-18 through examination change

This analysis of how the curriculum system in geography 14-18 works resulted in a decision in 1972 to hinge the Project's policy for development around the evolution of a supporting examination system. It then became necessary to concentrate on either O-level or A-level because the Project's resources were such that they could not be developed simultaneously. In the event it was decided to give priority to the former where it was thought that change was more urgently needed. This decision has resulted in the development of a new O-level examination with the University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate who have acted on behalf of the other GCE Boards.

The Project's purpose in setting up this new examination was to provide geography teachers with a system of assessment which would allow them to participate more fully in the process of curriculum renewal by enabling them to:

(a) draw more effectively on new ideas in geography and education by the systematic and planned development of their own resources;

(b) relate short-term objectives to long-term general educational aims, particularly through individual enquiry, study in depth and constructive feedback to students;

(c) share in the assessment process through a provision for coursework and individual studies.

At the same time it was necessary to reconcile this attempt to free teachers from examination constraints with the GCE Boards' responsibility for safeguarding subject standards and maintaining comparability of assessment. This was achieved in part by establishing a core syllabus assessed by a common final paper and to which 50% of the total marks for the subject are awarded. The aim of this core syllabus is to enable students to use important concepts, models and skills drawn on in geography to classify and interpret such everyday experiences as discerning order in a landscape and bringing regional and world problems into appropriate frames of reference. In so doing it is hoped to promote the student's understanding of:

(a) the geographical character of the local area, and of the British Isles considered as a unit; the use of Ordnance Survey 1:25,000 and 1:50,000 maps;

(b) significant contrasts and similarities in
  (i) other economically-developed regions of the world,
  (ii) less-developed regions of the world;

(c) the working of wider physical and economic systems at a world scale;

(d) the processes underlying landscape and spatial patterns;

(e) environmental inter-relationships considered in terms of systems and sub-systems; and hence with multiple or cumulative causes, rather than simple cause and effect or deterministic explanations;

(f) how landscape and spatial patterns change and may be expected to continue to change, especially in the context of technological change;

(g) the role of decision-making, and of the values and perceptions of decision-makers, in the evolution of patterns in human geography;

(h) the importance of the scale at which patterns and systems are considered;

(i) how ideas, models and maps simplify complex geographical reality.

As a means to achieving these ends teachers are encouraged to plan their own curricula guided by Fig. 1 which shows the subject areas from which illustrative examples should be chosen, the wider systems and contexts in which these should be studied and the approximate distribution of examples to be taken from different parts of the world. It is also used to guide the examiners when setting the common final paper.

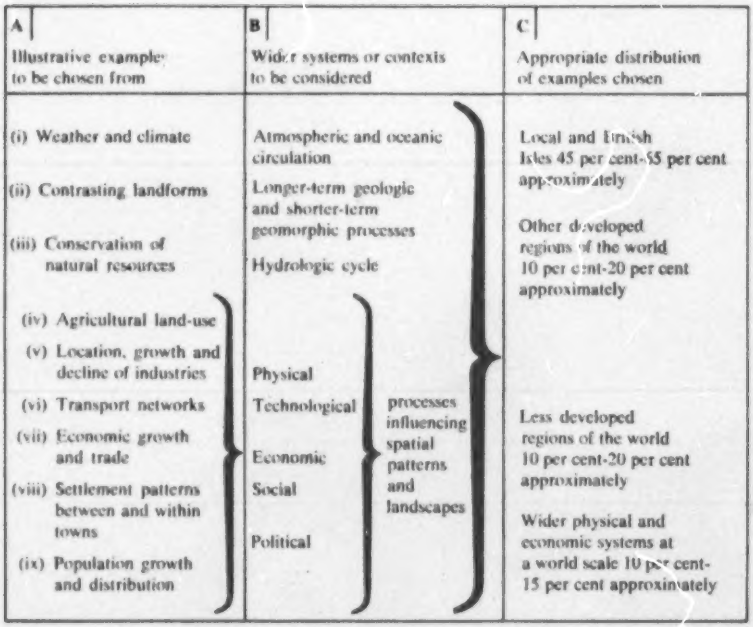
A
Illustrative examples to be chosen from
B
Wider systems or contexts to be considered
C
Appropriate distribution of examples chosen
(i) Weather and climate
(ii) Contrasting landforms
(iii) Conservation of natural resources
(iv) Agricultural land-use
(v) Location, growth and decline of industries
(vi) Transport networks
(vii) Economic growth and trade
(viii) Settlement patterns between and within towns
(ix) Population growth and distribution
Atmospheric and oceanic circulation
Longer-term geologic and shorter-term geomorphic processes
Hydrologic cycle
Physical
Technological
Economic
Social
Political
processes influencing spatial patterns and landscapes
Local and British Isles 45 per cent-55 per cent approximately
Other developed regions of the world 10 per cent-20 per cent approximately
Less developed regions of the world 10 per cent-20 per cent approximately
Wider physical and economic systems at a world scale 10 per cent-15 per cent approximately

Fig. 1 The Structure of the Core Syllabus

The remaining 50% of the marks for the subject at O-level are allocated to coursework (30%) and individual studies (20%) both of which are internally assessed and externally moderated. Coursework is tackled on the basis of six equal units of work allocated as shown in Fig. 2 with each unit representing about two weeks of study. Coursework is particularly concerned with studies where there are special advantages of assessing outside the common final paper *e.g.* where a piece of work is being tackled in a school for the first time and would benefit from more immediate and sensitive feedback to both teachers and students, or because it is specific to an individual school or a teacher's special interests. The work undertaken for a unit coursework is common to a whole class and sometimes even to all the students from as many as ten local schools in a local consortium, thus providing a basis for comparability of assessment. The work, which can include essays, problem-solving assignments and fieldwork reports, involves greater study in depth than is normally feasible at O-level. The six units are distributed at intervals throughout the two years of the course but must be completed by the end of April in the fifth year so that the final moderation processes can be carried out in time by the Board.

Experience has already shown that coursework can play a key role in promoting curriculum development in geography 14-18 by providing periodic opportunities for the critical appraisal, not just of the students' work, but of the course itself, including the resources provided, the questions set and the criteria and marking scheme used in its assessment. It thus provides both students and teachers with feedback on the quality of their work, making assessment integral to teaching and learning rather than a separate terminal adjunct. It can also influence future common final examination papers by demonstrating the feasibility of new ideas.

Coursework categories	Number of assessment units for coursework
I **Regional or synoptic studies** (*i.e.* studies in depth of the inter-relationships between heterogenous phenomena in areal units at different scales, such as local areas, landscapes, conurbations, politico-economic units). II **Planning problems** (*i.e.* practical issues of conservation, economic growth in developing nations, urban renewal, which lead on to decisions about the allocation of resources). III **Innovation studies** (*i.e.* developing enquiry aspects of geography or experimental teaching approaches). IV **Arts and strategies of enquiry in Geography**: Teacher planned enquiry.	A maximum of three units may be submitted for any one of categories I, ii, III, IV.
Chosen units should total	6 units

Fig. 2 The Structure of Coursework

The individual studies submitted by the students as part of their O-level course are expected to be up to 2500 words in length and to include relevant illustrative material such as maps, diagrams and photographs. The criteria which these studies have to meet helps to distinguish them from the "projects" which are included in many other examination schemes, particularly CSE. The study should:

(a) take the form of an argument related to a clearly formulated question or problem placed in context;

(b) reveal evidence of individual work satisfying such aims of the course as an understanding of the use of sources and their limitations, the interpretation of data, the application of principles, the clarification of values and the communication of the results of the enquiry;

(c) entail personal initiative and enquiry skills.

Both teachers and students have already shown that they are capable of responding to the challenge of O-level individual studies. So far the best studies have been produced where:

(a) a manageable problem was defined and a generalisation, model or hypothesis advanced;

(b) data was collected through fieldwork or from other sources, presented in the form of maps and diagrams and analysed where appropriate using statistical techniques;

(c) conclusions were reached in which an attempt was made to evaluate the original generalisation, model or hypothesis in the light of the enquiry.

Through their individual studies students are able to develop their own interests in geography, and to experience the kind of demands which self-directed learning and study in depth will make should they decide to study the subject in the sixth form. For their part the capacity of teachers to adapt their teaching styles, to assume new roles and relationships and to deploy their time in such a way that they are able to supervise

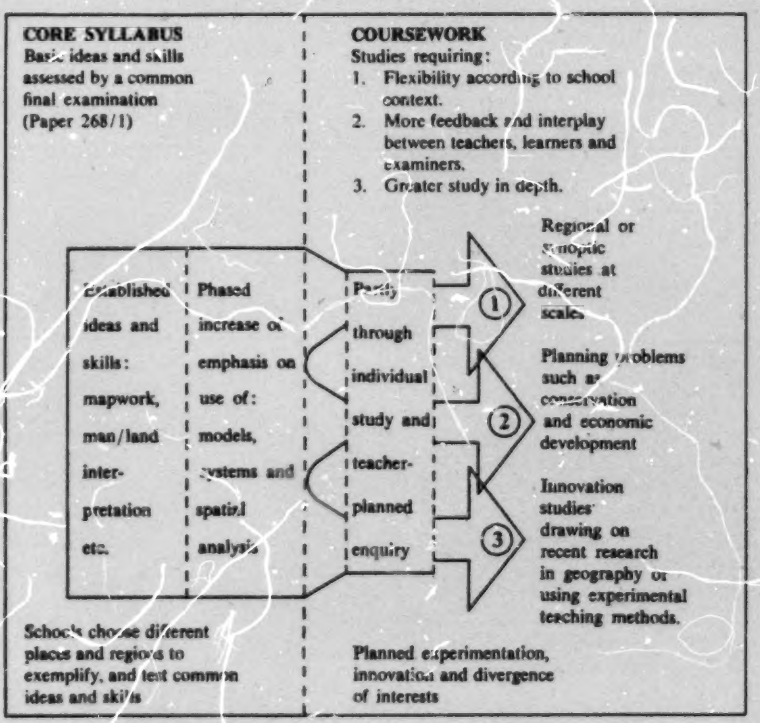
CORE SYLLABUS
Basic ideas and skills assessed by a common final examination (Paper 268/1)
COURSEWORK
Studies requiring:
1. Flexibility according to school context.
2. More feedback and interplay between teachers, learners and examiners.
3. Greater study in depth.
Established ideas and skills: mapwork, man/land inter-pretation etc.
Phased increase of emphasis on use of: models, systems and spatial analysis
Partly through individual study and teacher-planned enquiry
1
2
3
Regional or synoptic studies at different scales
Planning problems such as conservation and economic development
Innovation studies drawing on recent research in geography or using experimental teaching methods.
Schools choose different places and regions to exemplify, and test common ideas and skills
Planned experimentation, innovation and divergence of interests

Fig. 3 The complementary function of the core syllabus and coursework.

the work of individual students are all crucial for the success of individual studies.

The complementary function of the core syllabus, coursework and individual studies in the examination system is shown in Fig. 3.

This account of the Project's O-level examination system would be incomplete without some reference to the role of the moderators who are assigned to groups of schools under team leaders on a regional basis. Their duties in relation to the schools include approving course designs to ensure that they comply with the regulations and arranging group moderation meetings for the co-ordination of assessment standards. The moderators are also expected to see that the marking of coursework is undertaken as soon as possible after it has been completed by the students. In addition the schools are able to seek the moderator's advice on the suitability of the work which they propose to set for coursework, on individual study titles, marking schemes and assessment procedures. Through the moderators the examining board is thus providing the schools with professional advice on all matters relating to the implementation of the examination as well as keeping a watchful eye on standards and comparability of assessment. The moderator also provides a direct channel of communication between the schools and the examination board which among other things allows the teachers to put forward recommendations to the examiners concerning questions for the common final paper.

Although the Project's terms of reference were for the more able pupil many of the schools which have adopted the O-level examination did so because they find it educationally undesirable as well as impracticable to distinguish between the curricula which they offer to students of different abilities in the 14-16 age group. The flexibility of the Project's O-level meant that they were able to submit CSE Mode 3 schemes which are compatible with it not just in subject content but in modes of assessment as well. Thus valuable experience is being gained by participating teachers in the teaching and assessment of the same basic ideas in geography across a wide range of ability at 14-16. In the short-term, this enables the schools to economise on the preparation of teaching materials and to avoid making premature decisions about the examination for which particular students should be entered; in the longer-term, their experience is highly relevant to the development of a common system of examining at 16+. A number of schools have also found the Project's system of assessment by coursework to be of value in the new one-year CEE (Certificate of Extended Education) courses which they have devised for their non-traditional sixth-formers.

Establishing a system of in-service support

The implementation of curriculum change through the adoption of a new examination system like the one developed by the Project imposes heavy demands on participating teachers. It is not simply a matter of finding the extra time which they need to prepare and mark coursework, supervise individual studies and attend moderation meetings, important

as this is. Teachers also require a knowledge and understanding of new developments in geography and the professional skill to plan and manage the on-going process of curriculum change as well as the ability and confidence to design a curriculum of their own, to develop new teaching materials and to accept responsibility for the internal assessment of their students' work. In other words it demands a new professionalism on the part of geography teachers who in turn require new forms of in-service training and support.

In establishing its in-service support structures the Project has given priority to obtaining time release on the same half day a week over a two year period for two teachers from each of about five local schools. This enables them to meet regularly in school time to plan their curricula, share in the preparation of new teaching and assessment materials and carry out the group moderation of coursework. However, the appointment of curriculum co-ordinators ensures that these local education authority consortia are more than just self-help co-operatives. It is the co-ordinator's task to act as a catalyst to the group's activities by providing an external viewpoint and theoretical perspective on the problems under discussion and by introducing new ideas in geography. He is also responsible for liaison with the education authority and with the examining board's moderator and is expected to provide practical help with the preparation of teaching and assessment materials should the need arise. In order to carry out these duties co-ordinators are released from their full-time posts (in some cases as lecturers in a college of education or university department, in others as school heads of department) for the equivalent of one day a week. The name given to this role in the educational literature is "change agent"; despite this disadvantage it is one which has important implications if a more systematic attempt is made in the future to link teacher-centred curriculum development with school-based in-service training.

The function of published materials in the strategy for development

From the foregoing discussion it is evident that Geography 14-18 has given greater priority in its work to building new organisational structures onto the framework provided by existing institutions than it has to the development of curriculum materials. This is not to deny the important role which new materials can play in curriculum development as demonstrated by the Schools Council Geography for the Young School Leaver Project.* Geography 14-18's efforts in this respect have been more modest and have been directed towards the production of practical guidelines for teachers, some of which have already been published by the examining board. The rest will appear in the form of a teacher's handbook "Curriculum Design and Management in Geography" which is to be published by Macmillan early in 1977. It will be complemented by five units of teaching materials in which the resources for students will be in the form of either spirit duplicator masters or multiple copies. The units ("Popula-

* Schools Council Project, *Geography for the Young School Leaver*, Nelson, 1974-75.

tion Growth and Migration", "Transport Networks", "Industrial Locations", "Urban Settlements" and "Hydrological Systems") draw upon materials and ideas originally developed by teachers in Project schools. The function of these materials is to act as starter resources to help teachers over the initial threshold which they face when implementing a new curriculum, and as a source of exemplars on which teachers can base the development of their own materials. Each of the units will contain examples of coursework assessment units suitable for use in the Project's O-level examination.

Conclusions

The Geography 14-18 Project thus rejected the approach to curriculum development which grew up in the 1960s based on the production, testing and dissemination of curriculum packages because it did not seem appropriate to the situation in the 1970s. If curriculum development in geography is to go on adapting to continuing change then it must also involve the development of a new professionalism, not just among geography teachers, but on the part of those involved in moderation and in-service training. It must also be accompanied by organisational changes, particularly those which lead to the development of more open and flexible systems of external examinations.

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Examination regulations, guidelines on coursework and individual studies and copies of past papers are available from:

The Secretary,
University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate,
17 Harvey Road,
Cambridge CB1 2EU.

The Role of the School Library Resource Centre

P. G. COCKBURN, *Head of Resources Centre, Dumfries and Galloway College of Technology**

During the last decade a vast range of multi-media materials for teaching and learning—plus fundamental curricular and organisational changes, especially in the field of individualised learning—have transformed libraries in educational establishments from the primary to the tertiary level into library resource centres. The library resource centre has become the nerve centre of the school and its advent has brought with it a complete new vocabulary: non-book materials, information retrieval, precis indexing, software, hardware, item banking, database, post co-ordinate indexing, optical coincidence, thesaurus, reprographic unit. It has also brought with it a profusion of books and articles by teachers and librarians on how to set about establishing a library resource centre in a school situation. The purpose of this brief article is to show teachers how to set up a resource centre in their schools without a prior knowledge of the various concepts of information retrieval and library science.

Definition

A library resource centre is a collection of all forms of learning resources (books, periodicals, newspapers, multi-media teaching packages, audio-visual software) together with equipment for their use and, often, their manufacture. The term does not necessarily imply either a direct connection with materials production (though the Schools Council Resource Centre Project[1] and the Library Association[2] recommend this, and it is implicit in the approach of the Inner London Education Authority), or the physical centralisation of all resources but only of the knowledge of their existence and location. With the ever-rising cost of books, audio-visual software, printing facilities and paper, it would seem that the co-ordination of all of these at a centralised point—the library resource centre—would no longer be considered a luxury but an economic necessity. In the present "no growth" situation it is therefore necessary to think of the best ways of developing the resources, equipment, finances, use of personnel and available space. The setting up of a library resource centre as defined above, and if possible in one area, would go a long way towards avoiding unnecessary duplication between acquisitions of individual departments and so aid curriculum development in the school.

Book Selection

At the outset it is necessary to pool the finances of the individual school

* This article was prepared by Mr Cockburn before he left the staff of the Centre in November 1975 to take up his present post.

departments (a step which may well be resisted by many heads of department if they are not satisfactorily convinced of the advantages of centralised storage) and to establish a Book Selection Committee. This committee should ideally consist of the assistant head teacher (curriculum), the heads of department and the librarian or person responsible for the running of the resource centre. Where a school employs a qualified librarian, book selection can be left entirely to this person's professional expertise.

Classifying

The recent literature on library resource centres has dealt with, often in great detail, post co-ordinate indexing systems (*e.g.* Uniterm and Optical Coincidence Cards). These are systems of indexing in which the subject content of items is analysed into specific features or facets, each of which receives its own features cards. The individual accession number of the term is entered on the card for each feature appropriate to it. The enquirer selects those features which comprise his subject need, and comparison (*e.g.* by optical coincidence) reveals accession numbers common to all. They are then sought by reference to an accessions file which gives further detail and location. This system requires the construction of a features list or thesaurus and is only as effective as the language terms used in this list. Many schools have attempted to install this form of indexing sometimes with disastrous results. It should be first of all noted that this is a form of indexing only suitable for the storage and retrieval of material on a specific subject when the existing conventional classification schemes (*e.g.* Dewey, Library of Congress, etc.) fall down due to lack of suitable terminology. This indexing system also requires a very dedicated person to construct the features list and to keep it up-to-date. It is also a system which does not invite browsing as all the contents are arranged numerically and, like topics, are dispersed throughout the system. A conventional classification system would, in most cases, keep related subjects together, *e.g.* algebra, geometry and trigonometry would be together under the general heading of Mathematics.

For the library resource centre the Dewey Decimal Classification seems to be the best although it is not perfect in many ways. It is, however, the only scheme under constant revision, a new edition appearing every seven years; there is a simplified edition produced by the School Library Association which can easily be used by teachers after a little practice; and, most important of all, it is the system in use in the great majority of public libraries and educational libraries. The arguments for the use of Dewey far outweigh those against (*e.g.* the dispersal of geography throughout the classification).

Cataloguing

The cataloguing of the resources should be kept as simple as possible. Depth indexing, which is indexing in great detail so that more parts and aspects of an item are indexed than is normal, would only be required

for the audio-visual software where the enquirer would wish to ascertain from the catalogue card the format the audio-visual material was in. Of the cataloguing codes of practice in existence the one devised by the Council for Educational Technology[3] is the most suitable. For the cataloguing of books the American-originated Dictionary Catalogue would seem best. The Dictionary Catalogue contains, in one alphabetical sequence, entries for subjects, authors, titles, etc. Related subjects separated by the alphabetical arrangement are linked by *see* and *see also* references, *e.g.* PLANTS *see* BOTANY: BOTANY *see also* individual plants under their names. Subject entries are usually made under the most specific heading, *e.g.* TANKERS rather than SHIPS. In the United States the use of published heading lists (*e.g.* Sears List of Subject Headings) with designated cross-references ensures consistency and aids the cataloguer. For the teacher with library responsibilities the Dictionary Catalogue is easier to compile than the Classified Catalogue because he will not be required to go into the intricacies of subject index compilation.

School Library Service

With local government reorganisation in Scotland in May 1975 came the catalyst for the future development of the school library resource centre—the new School Library Service attached to the Local Authority District Education Departments. Educational Resources Librarians were appointed to set up a school library service, sometimes in areas where this service did not previously exist (*e.g.* Glasgow and Edinburgh). It is difficult at present to assess constructively the work done by the School Library Service due to the short period of time since its inception, but if it can develop along the lines of the present public library service it could well be the long-awaited panacea to overcome the present difficulties encountered by schools wishing to develop their own resource centres.

At present in the public library service, books are selected in the local branch library and an order is placed with the supplier through the centralised agency for the district. When the books are delivered to the centralised agency they are fully processed prior to being sent to the branch library. This processing system would include accessioning, classifying, fitting plastic jackets, strengthening paperbacks and the compilation of a union catalogue which shows at a glance the holdings of each branch library in the district. If this service, long established and well proven in public libraries, could be applied to the ordering of educational resources for schools and with the use of the School Library Service as the centralised agency, the saving of teachers' time and the lack of duplication would be enormous. Union catalogues would start to spring up and an inter-loan system between schools in an area would become very much a reality.

Inter-Library Borrowing

When a teacher approaches his school library resource centre with a request for material and the resource centre cannot meet this request,

the enquiry should be put through the following channels. If there is a School Library Service in operation in the district the enquiry should be directed there—and the union catalogue of holdings consulted. When this service does not exist the local teachers' centre should be approached. When the response from either of these is negative, approach should then be made to one of the four Scottish curriculum development centres. Each of these centres have developed libraries, specialising in their allotted fields, of secondary school textbooks, multi-media teaching packages, games, simulations and audio-visual software. The four centres are Centre for Information on the Teaching of English (CITE) at Moray House College of Education, the Scottish Centre for Modern Languages at Aberdeen College of Education, the Scottish Centre for Mathematics, Science and Technical Education at Dundee College of Education and the Scottish Centre for Social Subjects at Jordanhill College of Education. It would be most desirable in the future to establish a national union catalogue of school resources in a similar format to the organisations run by the National Library of Scotland Interlibrary Loan Section (formerly the Scottish Central Library) and the British Library at Boston Spa.

Staffing

The ideal staffing structure for the school library resource centre would be Head of Resources (Assistant Headteacher, Curriculum), a Librarian (preferably qualified), a Technician, a Graphics Artist/Printer and a Clerical Assistant. The two most important members of this team are the Head of Resources who should have power to ensure adequate funds and the qualified Librarian who will be responsible for all library duties and the day to day running of the resource centre.

It is heartening to see recent reports from the Library Association,[4] the Scottish Library Association in collaboration with the School Library Association[5] and a Working Party from the Corporation of Glasgow Education Department[6] advocating the use of qualified librarians in all secondary schools.

This situation will only be arrived at when schools are willing to appoint university-trained librarians, subject to the availability of money, and when teachers are willing to hand over to them all aspects of library organisation and especially book selection.

Conclusion

The more we individualise our learning the greater our need for resource centres. In each school there is basically a communication problem which is a problem that can in many ways be eradicated by the centralising of materials in such a centre.

Once the decision has been taken the implementation is not nearly as difficult as some of the recent literature would imply. What is basically required is a card index showing the location of all the school's resources and a booking system for the issue of this material. Teachers should also bear in mind that help from the Scottish curriculum development centres and the newly established School Library Service will become greater

with their continuing expansion and growth. In the present economic situation school library resource centres are no longer a luxury but an economic necessity.

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Problem-vision for a Troubled Society: Some Observations about Social Studies in the U.S.A.

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It would seem appropriate, in the Bicentennial Year, to take a look at some of the influences which have shaped social studies in the United States, and at some of the directions in which it is moving.

The concept of social studies was first officially recognised in the U.S.A. when the Committee on Social Studies appointed by the National Education Association issued its report in 1916. The report stated that the purpose of social studies was the cultivation of good citizenship, that it was to be directed to the education of all citizens and not just to a cultivated élite and that the subject matter should be determined by pressing social problems. These are still the main goals of most of the leaders and innovators in this field.

It should be said that most of the trends discussed here are, for a large proportion of teachers and pupils, still trends for the future. The reality in many ghetto schools is that simple reading lessons and a few basic facts for survival in adult life are as much as can be managed. The Social Science Education Consortium's publication "A Framework for Social Science Education", pointed out in 1973 that, "the Social Studies program as it is carried on in most schools is seen by students as among the least relevant, and is certainly among the less popular, of school offerings. It is dominated by an emphasis on history, geography and American government or civics. Learning facts is stressed and pupil involvement in learning activity is usually low."

Another concern stems from the nature of the High School Diploma in which the need to gain the required total of credit points through the successful completion of a number of courses is usually accompanied by a wide variety of options. This can sometimes lead to a pupil following a series of short and disconnected courses and some teachers have expressed concern that "Mickey Mouse" courses of this type may prevent a student from ever grasping the underlying cognitive structure of the social subjects.

There is, however, a strong reform movement in the social studies led by the University Education Departments, the Social Science Education Consortium in Colorado, the Regional Curriculum Laboratories and privately funded organisations such as the Educational Development Centre in Massachussetts.

Much of the developmental work emanating from these organisations is noticeably interdisciplinary in character, embracing such disciplines as Economics, Sociology, Social Psychology, Political Science, Anthropology and Law. But misgivings have been expressed that the academic disciplines of the Social Sciences alone, however simplified, cannot fulfil the envisaged role of social studies education and therefore a broader

definition of the social sciences needs to be adopted which would include every kind of knowledge necessary to understand the working of society. For this reason, some of the Humanities projects in England, which include the liberal arts, are being watched with interest and admiration on the other side of the Atlantic. The document "Guidelines for Social Studies", issued by the National Council for the Social Studies, puts it like this—"Broadly based social issues do not respect the boundaries of academic disciplines. The notion that disciplines must always be studied in their pure form or that social studies content should be drawn only from the social sciences is insufficient for a curriculum intended to demonstrate the relationship between knowledge and rationally-based social participation."

As in British education, there is a continuing debate over the relationship between content, process and values and the relative importance to be put on each. Those who seek to emphasise process rather than content point out that, in a swiftly changing world, factual knowledge can rapidly become obsolete and they stress the need to learn how to learn—by discovery learning and individual inquiring methods. They advocate a problem-solving approach and the development of "problem-vision," that is, an awareness of the gap between ideals and reality. As a result of the knowledge explosion which has brought about a glut of information, facts can become not only obsolete but unmanageable. Therefore, special topics and ephemeral facts are increasingly being seen as vehicles for conveying underlying and more enduring concepts. There is, however, very little agreement about what these concepts should be, or even at what stage they can be learnt.

Allied to the debate about the place of process in social studies teaching is the question of the extent to which action and participation should be part of the curriculum. Some of the reformers declare that learning must include relating and doing and that a social studies programme ought to develop young adults who say, "I know what's going on, I'm part of it and I'm doing something about it." The opponents of the action-oriented approach argue that childhood and adolescence is not a time for action but for preparation, that action-taking should be left to mature people who have developed a sense of responsibility and that schools should not become involved in controversial or political issues. This is countered along the lines that responsibility and action are inseparable and responsibility is learnt through action; that social-action skills can be taught; that, generally, those in deprived situations, who need these skills the most, have the least opportunity for learning them once they have left school; and that these kinds of approaches cannot be separated from the school's obligation to develop each individual to the full.

Community involvement is nothing new to British education, of course. However, it is a relatively mild trend compared to its American counterpart, for the idea and the ideal of action is part of the American way of life—it has its roots in the frontier spirit, in the example of Benjamin Franklin and in the belief in grass-roots democracy. In the last decade, the pressures for community action and control in the U.S.A. have been

mounting from all quarters—from the Black Panthers and the Students for a Democratic Society, to widespread collective action arising out of the frustrations of the Vietnam War or the strong feelings aroused by environmental problems.

In terms of content, there is a noticeable bias towards an issue-oriented approach. These issues, which reflect the main concerns of many Americans, include conflict topics such as, war, civil disobedience, crime and violence; the rights of oppressed groups or as one article puts it, "blacks, women, and other oppressed groups"; and a whole range of environmental problems such as pollution or urban growth. Since the first moon landings, there has been a growing interest in the "Spaceship Earth" concept, with its allied themes of Global Studies and global perspectives studies, of world history and culture, patterns of human conflict or world food-population problems. Futurology or Future Studies is another area of study gaining ground, which was reflected in the fact that the title of the 1974 National Convention for Social Studies was "Face Tomorrow Today". The approach taken is, again, an issue or problem-oriented one, only on a long-term basis, in an attempt to meet the needs of children who could still be wage earners in the year 2030 or beyond. Typical themes in this category might be urban development and transport problems, for example "The Machine—Enemy or Ally", "Towards the Year 2000".

Legal Education and Careers Education also receive a fair amount of attention in response to the availability of federal funds for all levels of education willing to develop these aspects. A concern running through the treatment of most of these topics is that of human dignity and human rights and the violation of these through the denial of social or economic justice, the denial of democratic decision-making and freedom of speech, the denial of religious freedom, or the violation of such rights through war or through the desecration of the environment.

In general, there seems to be much greater emphasis on games and simulation and on packaged courses than in Britain. Much of the material in the market originated as pilot projects from curriculum centres and university education departments and were initially financed through federal funds or one or several of the many independent sources of educational grants. In a wealthy nation the size of Europe, but with a common language, the amount of research, literature and curriculum materials being put out which have a bearing on the social studies is impressive. In this context, the Social Science Education Consortium and the ERIC Clearinghouse system are doing useful work in centralising, sorting and controlling this mass of information and bringing attention to some of the more significant developments. Many States compile lists of "adopted" textbooks from which schools must not stray. It is difficult to establish exactly what the criteria for adoption have been but in some instances, a major factor has been whether social studies materials contain an adequate and balanced treatment of minority groups. Many textbooks are now being re-written to include the contributions of minority groups to American society.

One of the most talked about aspects of social studies in America is

Values Education. It is also the aspect about which teachers probably feel the most trepidation, for it is an area in which parental concern and influence is at its strongest and a striking feature of U.S. education is certainly the strong voice which parents do have in the education of their children. In reverse of the policy in Britain, Religious Education is the only subject which, by law, must not be taught in schools and any tampering with established beliefs or values or any hint that children were being encouraged to challenge authority could bring trouble from parent-dominated school boards. Although there is opposition in this sphere there are some discernible trends. There is a trend away from seeing the aim of social studies as being to produce citizens who are compliant, orderly and law-abiding and towards that of producing citizens who question, criticise and engage in the reform of the system. There is a trend away from the inculcation of given values and towards helping pupils in the clarification of value conflicts within themselves.

In the past America and, in particular, the American educational system was regarded as the "great melting-pot of society". But, more recently, Americans have had to admit that there were some sizeable lumps at the bottom of the pot. Most cities have their distinct ethnic groups and "black is beautiful". Cultural pluralism is now accepted and with it the need to help pupils recognise that there are many sets of values, all rooted in experiences and legitimate in terms of culture. An area of contention is whether values should be taught in the context of social studies problems or through experiences particularly planned for training in values. Either way, the trauma of the Watergate Affair has added impetus to the Values Education Movement.

Many of the issues and trends concerning social studies which have been touched upon here can be observed in Britain also, but the debate is conducted in a less urgent key and these issues do not exist in the same context—the context of American history with its resulting attitudes towards equality and democracy, freedom and private enterprise, the context of present and very real social problems of crime and violence, racialism and corruption, the context of the still-cherished American dream.

Teaching about the Third World

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Setting the Scene

Too often when reading about life in the Third World one is reminded of the old story of the minister crossing a high bridge on foot when he spies a suicide about to hurl himself from the parapet. He stops to ask what the trouble is and is treated to a graphic description of the horrors of the suicide's present existence. After ten minutes the minister reaches out for the suicide's hand and merely says: "Let's jump together."

Are the problems of development so insoluble? Is progress and self-help and a worthwhile existence ruled out for citizens of poor countries? To obtain a more balanced picture it may be helpful to look at both the bleak and also the more hopeful pictures which a glimpse into the Third World can offer. The following passages may set the scene:—

I. "Roughly a million of Calcutta's people live under the naked sky, on pavements or next to the open ditches each night. Another four million are huddled in slums which are an absurd ramshackle apology of liveable units. This is marginal existence—between your bedroom and your kitchen and your lavatory the barriers do not exist. Epidemics visit you, much as the monsoon does, in a weary, monotonous regularity. Both you take in your stride. Incremental misery has lost its sting. Therefore despite the squalor, despite the periodic deaths, births continue to proliferate, the slums add to their human population . . ."—(Ashok Mitra on "Calcutta" in the *New Internationalist*, January 1976).

II. ". . . For centuries the staple food crop of Southern India is *ragi*, a strain of millet. But Muniyappa, like other local farmers who have come under the spell of village extension workers, enjoys a more varied diet. He is now growing potatoes, cabbages and onions—most for market, some for himself . . . He can grow three crops a year where before he grew one. The most remarkable of these crops is hybrid maize. Five years ago maize was unknown around Bangalore, and its introduction was at first resisted by the farmers. Muniyappa confessed that he himself had believed the rumour that it would give him cholera. During last season he had two acres under maize. And just now he is planting mulberry for the booming Mysore silk industry. When economists talk of the necessity to revolutionise rural life by substituting a cash economy for a subsistence economy, they are speaking of Muniyappa."—(Peter Gill: *Drops in the Ocean*. pp. 30-31, Macdonald, 1970).

III. During the 1974 famine in Ethiopia a group of British scientists visited a tribal region 300 miles west of Addis Ababa. This is part of their report:

"As we worked the Massengo tribesmen would come and look at us, sometimes in disbelief. Most of their day was spent sitting, smoking, talking or drinking. The women worked the hardest: chopping wood and collecting the water . . . They lead an unhurried, unchanging, secure life . . . In general they seemed in good health . . . Yet the gentle life of the Massengo, like that of other primitive (Third World) peoples, may be in jeopardy in the future though their lands are unsuitable for immediate exploitation."—(Nigel Winser: "The Tribe That Walks by Itself," *Sunday Observer Magazine*, 6th April 1974).

IV. "Receiving foreign aid doesn't mean the end of our self-reliance, because development in our country still depends on Tanzanians. We are not going to ask anyone to come in and do our development for us."—(President Nyerere—Speech in London, January 1976).

The passages could obviously be multiplied from other sources but they provide some insight into the grave problems, rural progress, contrasting life styles and national pride which are all features of life in the Third World.

Progress in Teaching About the Third World

There is a considerable amount of evidence to show the tremendous improvements which have taken place over the past few years in the volume and quality of teaching about the Third World. Third World studies enjoy a secure slot in the secondary curriculum in Scotland mainly in Modern Studies and Geography but also in History, English, Religious Education, Economics, Home Economics and inter-disciplinary courses. Round the schools one notices maps, information and worksheets, blackboards with useful data, impressive friezes, wall-charts and posters, gaming and simulation exercises, indicating class and teacher work on developing countries. Teachers' guides* and bibliographies, and high quality textbooks, teaching packs and slide-sets from educational publishers have provided teachers "with the tools to finish the job". Audio-visual aids in the form of films, filmstrips, slides and cassettes from BBC, ITV and the Voluntary Aid Organisations have helped to make more intelligible to younger pupils the realities of development in societies totally different from their own. In assessing SCE answers in Modern Studies on Third World topics one is aware of a more sophisticated grasp of content, more varied learning experiences being undergone, and more familiarity with the essential terminology of the subject. There seems too to be a deeper understanding of concepts like population stability, growth and control, dietary imbalance, rural conservatism, the "Green Revolution", income maldistribution, capital- and labour-intensive developments, self-sufficiency and one-crop economies. There are also indications that it is an area in which pupil and teacher enthusiasm and interest are

* See Figure 1.

engendered. The best teaching is done where the teacher has organised his or her strategy clearly, kept didactic situations simple, used a variety of methods (including audio-visual aids and problem-solving opportunities in order to emphasise the "human" dimension in problems and issues), and recapitulated key-points in each unit of study.

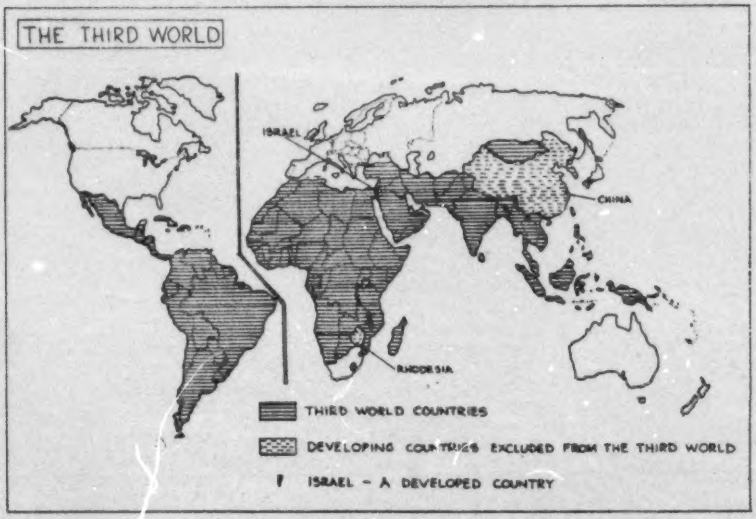


Fig. 1 The Third World—Teacher's Guide

What then remains to be done? A very great deal, perhaps summarised in the following:

1. Consolidation of progress to date and introduction of students and probationer teachers to present techniques, resources and content in SCE and non-SCE syllabuses especially in Modern Studies and Geography.
2. Introduction of SI and SII classes to Third World studies at the formative years of 12-14 when misconceptions and stereotypes about "poor" countries are being transmitted to pupils by peer-groups, the home and comics. This would ensure that all pupils at some time in their secondary career study the Third World.
3. Up-dating of content to keep abreast of social, political and economic developments in the "rich" and "poor" worlds.
4. More emphasis in English and Modern Studies on use of source extracts and quotations from Third World writers describing their own societies which helps to correct misconceptions which can be conveyed to pupils by teachers and textbooks (the Commonwealth Institute in Scotland has made a start in this direction by compiling booklists of new Commonwealth writers).

5. Less emphasis on broad, generalised treatment of topics like population, starvation, "Green Revolution" and "appropriate technologies;" more emphasis on case studies and exemplification which illustrate these. For example, population density can be very clearly shown by contrasting two islands, Lewis/Harris in the Hebrides and Mauritius in the Indian Ocean. (See Figure 2).

	LEWIS/HARRIS	MAURITIUS
AREA in Sq. Mls	825	720
POPULATION (1975 est)	31,500	865,000
POPULATION DENSITY PER Sq. Mile	38	1201

Fig. 2

Why Teach About the Third World?

In view of some of the matters discussed above this is perhaps a strange question. Yet it may not be entirely irrelevant, especially to a teacher exhausted by a restive class of 15 year old "Wurnogoanies"—"Sur, *wur no goany* study that again, ur we?" After all, content relating to Third World countries can be exacting, it can refer to "far-off countries of which we know nothing",* it assumes awareness of distance, size and space and certain mapping skills. Moreover, the basic issues—trade, aid and development—are so complex that they lead to generalisations by the teacher and therefore grave misconceptions on the part of the pupil. There is the danger that our teaching may lead to reinforcing stereotypes and prejudice instead of eradicating them.

Despite these real dangers there are very sound reasons for carefully structured courses in Third World studies for all secondary pupils. Reasons

* Neville Chamberlain's reference to Czechoslovakia, 1939.

for studying the Third World may be offered on some such grounds as these:

1. Whether we like it or not, the Third World does exist; it is there and won't go away even if we try to ignore it. "The poor we always have with us".
2. The study of developing countries is a good counter-weight to local community, regional and national studies: "micro-studies" have their place but teachers must avoid over-concentration on parochial, bread-and-butter, here-and-now issues.
3. We can obtain a better-informed insight into our own Scottish society, its past development and present issues, if we make a careful study of very different societies and their problems and achievements.
4. "Space-Ship Earth" and an inter-dependent world. This concept is one of the most difficult to get across to non-certificate pupils yet it may be a vital one if we are to challenge the "blank indifference" to developments in the outside world which may affect the next generation of Scottish parents and consumers. UK imports food, raw materials and consumer goods from well over 100 developing and developed countries—a visit to the fruit market or a supermarket to study labels tells its own cosmic story. The price of oil demanded by Nigeria or Iran or Libya is a matter of very real concern to Scottish motorists, housewives and factory managers dependent on oil for heating. In turn, we export to more than 100 countries—whisky, textiles, cars, electronic gear—and it should be of interest how we earn our living and how people living in countries consuming our goods earn theirs. Discussion of economic health and sickness and awareness of the concepts of aid and self-help surely are respectable and relevant matters for study in the Scottish secondary curriculum.

One may then summarise the main educational objectives for studying the Third World thus:

Knowledge and Understanding

recognition and use of vocabulary and concepts related to Third World issues;

appreciation of the scale of world poverty and its effects on societies throughout the world;

understanding and evaluation of efforts by developing countries to overcome their social, economic and political problems.

Skills

development of mapping skills, discovery and interpretation of relevant information, recording, analysing and communicating results of research;

ability through simulations, games or case studies to make decisions in relation to realistic Third World situations.

development of open-mindedness and of critical faculties especially in respect of stereotypes, opinions based on little or no evidence and exaggerations (*e.g.* the importance of British aid to developing countries).

In the cognitive domain teachers may encounter a certain glibness in the way that pupils bandy about the term "The Third World". Clearly it is a neat, snappy collective term yet it is also misleading and this should be pointed out. For the Third World encompasses a great mosaic of peoples and countries at various stages of social, economic and political development. On the gross national product per head per year, at one end of the scale are the largely destitute Ethiopia, Chad and Bangladesh, and at the other the well-off but underdeveloped Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and Iran. For this reason some development commentators are referring to the Fourth World and even the Fifth World (*i.e.* for the well-nigh destitute states). As Orwell said—"All pigs are equal but some are more equal than others".

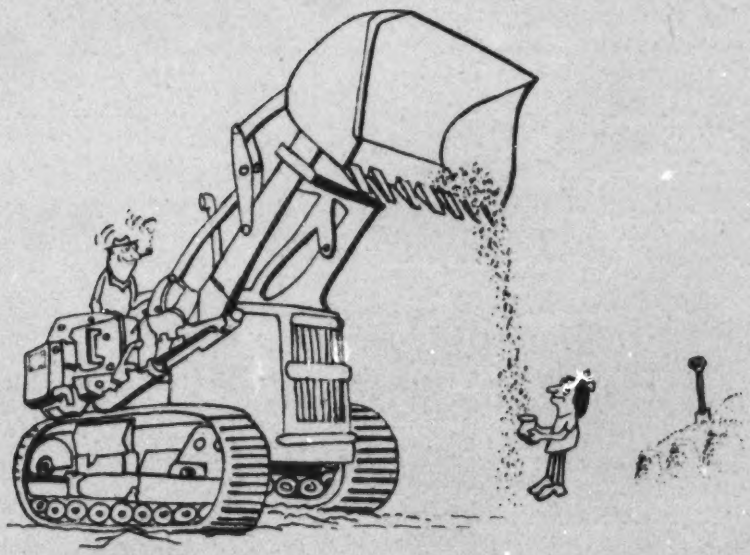
In the affective domain it is certainly important that pupils' false impressions and stereotypes be corrected where they are manifested. Take two examples. Most Scottish pupils, if asked to ascribe adjectives to Indians and Pakistanis in Asia, would employ the words "poor", "starving" and "illiterate". Whereas in general this *is* true yet it is clearly not the whole truth. The scale is exaggerated: conditions in the Punjab, Kashmir and Haryana are far from being depressed. And even in the midst of Calcutta's crushing poverty live the rich who "visit their clubs, down their whiskies, guzzle down protein-rich food, go to the races, ignore the poor . . ." (Ashok Mitra).

Again, in attitude surveys, pupils clearly have the impression that British aid and technology can save poor countries like India. It would seem that this is partly national pride, condescension and miscalculation of the size of the British aid programme. This is not surprising when one reads in the press and hears on television politicians and commentators talking of the British "shelling out of millions and millions to developing states who show no gratitude". However, not only is British aid less than 0·7% of our GNP but our technology, if copied completely in a poor Asian or African country, would do irreparable damage by throwing millions out of work and diverting millions of pounds from relevant rural projects to large-scale and usually urban developments. This merely accelerates the "pull" of the cities in poor countries. (It is worth noting that whereas the total population of the Third World is increasing by about 2·3% per annum the urban population is increasing by almost 5% per annum). In this context it is desirable to talk about developing countries adopting their own relevant technologies ("intermediate" or "appropriate" technologies) and teachers can find excellent examples of this concept in action from the Intermediate Technology Development Group.* (See Figure 3).

* Intermediate Technology Development Group Ltd., 9 King Street, London WC2E 8HN.

Fig. 3

Inappropriate Technology



Decision-taking

Pupils are now exposed more to the learning experience of games and simulations. Christian Aid, Oxfam and VOCAD have pioneered in schools and youth clubs packages involving such games and simulations. Some are very simple and emphasise chance and hazards in farming communities; others involve considerable study and/or background reading and require a fair amount of discussion prior to decision-taking. If pupils have found the game enjoyable or their interest aroused, then it is possible that a transfer of knowledge from inert to more realistic situations can take place. Usually the most useful part is the de-briefing session when reasons are adduced for certain decisions. A simplified version of the "Aid Committee Game" (Oxfam) can produce interesting follow-up discussion even with less able pupils as they compare the different decisions taken by other groups. See Figure 4. Of course, in certificate classes the constraints of examinations make it likely that decision-taking exercises will be an infrequent technique.

Fig. 4

Class Game—To approve certain projects and reject others.

Botswana projects: Total available for spending, £32,000

NO.	NATURE OF PROJECT	AMOUNT	YES	NO
1	Serowe School Workshop and Vegetable Gardens	£2,400		
2	Building two Clinics at Lehututu and Lobatsi	£5,700		
3	Animal Husbandry—Wages of two foreign experts plus introduction of new breed of cattle plus equipment at Francistown School	£11,500		
4	Fish Farming at Maun in the Okavango area—introduction of Carp to "New Lake"	£1,200		
5	Construction of earth dams at Mahalapye: cement base and ramps	£8,700		
6	Improvement of road linking Serowe to main road from Francistown to Gavarowe the capital	£14,100		
7	The establishment of workshops for making of shoes and satchels at Kanye	£4,600		
8	Brewery for Swaneng Hill Consumer Co-operative	£6,000		

TOTAL AMOUNT SPENT £

BALANCE (IF ANY) £

Class Discussion to follow.

The Political Dimension

Pupils frequently do not appreciate the great gulf which exists between the British political system and that existing in a typical Third World country. European Parliamentary institutions have not translated well to Afro-Asian environments and societies because of the inheritance of

unsatisfactory colonial frontiers, the tribal, ethnic and racial elements within the state, the need for strong, effective, centralised authority, the overweening power of the army, the external threats and the search for national security. High regard for a powerful single-minded leader as in Gadafy (Libya) or Amin (Uganda) may seem strange to British children exposed to press reports of their bizarre behaviour yet so long as such rulers command the affection and loyalty of the majority there is little hope for more thoughtful responses to economic and social development. It is important that pupils should be able to distinguish between the idea of "opposition" as used in Britain and as used widely in Africa. The latter interpretation with the consequences of such opposition are very well summed in a passage from the famous Nigerian writer Chinua Achebe's book *A Man of the People*:*

"Then came the slump in the international coffee market. Overnight the Government had a dangerous financial crisis on its hands. Coffee was the prop of our economy just as coffee farmers were the bulwark of the People's Organisation Party. The Minister of Finance at the time was a first-rate economist with a PhD in public finance. He presented to the Cabinet a complete plan for dealing with the situation. The PM said 'No' to the plan. He was not going to risk losing the election by cutting down the price paid to coffee planters at that critical moment: the National Bank should be instructed to print fifteen million pounds. Two thirds of the Cabinet supported the Minister of Finance. The next morning the PM sacked them and in the evening he broadcast to the nation. He said the dismissed ministers were conspirators and traitors who had teamed up with foreign saboteurs to destroy the new nation".

It is important too that pupils should realise that "rich" countries encourage the acceleration of hostilities between Third World neighbouring countries by their large-scale export of arms. Countries like Britain gain much more from their arms sales to developing countries than they give in development aid. Frontier incidents and territorial claims are endemic in Afro-Asian countries. The role of the army and its influence over political figures is worthy of attention in studying developing countries. Political figures are much more vulnerable to charges of incompetence in handling the economy or controlling inflation or stamping out corruption than are military leaders who can suppress opposition and muzzle the press more easily and quickly.

It is therefore worth paying particular attention to pupils' understanding of concepts like authority, freedom and democracy in Third World studies. In any case the political dimension ought not to be neglected since governments in developing countries have proportionally greater political burdens to carry.

The New "O" Grade in Modern Studies

The new "O" grade syllabus will provide for a special study to be undertaken by pupils individually or in groups. This study is envisaged

* Chinua Achebe *A Man of the People* pages 3 and 4, Heinemann, 1966.

as an extended one involving the pupil in a range of learning experiences including search for evidence, compilation and presentation in the form of a report. The report would be both continuously and terminally assessed by the class teacher. Such a study gives to teachers a fair degree of control over the effective syllabus and permits, for pupils, an extension of the syllabus according to group and individual choice.

Clearly there are formidable practical problems for teachers and the Scottish Certificate of Education Examination Board to overcome. However there may be compensation in a higher quality of output than obtained in the answers to previous nominated topics which frequently indicated no special depth of study and treatment. So far as Third World studies are concerned teachers and pupils will be able to select case studies for extended study—the work of WHO or FAO in India or Kenya or Bolivia. In particular there will be opportunities for family, group or community studies. This is a growth area in studying developing countries and it is likely that the special study, will reinforce this trend. Already there is a wealth of resources for such studies of families and communities in situ. An outstanding example was the BBC series in 1975 entitled "Living in a Developing Country: Ghana." One of the programmes portrayed most effectively the life of a family in a village in Northern Ghana, conveying aspects of authority, interdependence, communal support and self-sufficiency in village life. Other memorable films on community life are the "Daily Life of the Bozo" (Scottish Central Film Library) and "The Children of the Fire" (Bangladeshi Community in Gurudaspur after the war of independence—distributed by Oxfam).

Examples of outstandingly good folder material are available in the ILEA/Heinemann World History Project featuring four folders each on India, Africa and China. The four folders on India, for instance, cover *Food*, *Work*, *Family Life*, *Village and Town*. Family Life (India) describes and illustrates large families: here is a brief extract describing changes in family life:

"My grandparents helped all their relatives, even distant ones, and my father, too, was very fond of all his relatives and helped many of them. My husband and I live in Bombay; we look after our own children only and do not even see my two sisters and their families, though they live near us . . . I feel we should not waste our time and energy bothering about distant relatives. Everyone ought to look after himself, and should not be a burden to his relatives".

Extended studies might provide opportunities for appreciating more deeply not only the difficulties of living in "poor" countries but also the strength of family and communal bonds and the closer dependence on the local environment. This may be a corrective to over-emphasis on problems, and still more problems, in Third World studies. It is just possible that the suicide didn't really need to jump.

Summary

School work on the Third World has very much improved in recent

years. Studies are bolstered by teaching resources of quality from various publishers and by more enterprising teaching methods. However, progress must be consolidated, SI and SII pupils should be introduced more to Third World topics especially when taught in a multi-disciplinary context, greater use of source extracts, case studies and family/community studies should be made and teachers should have a clear grasp of the educational objectives in any course of study. More attention may have to be paid to political realities in the Third World and perhaps problem-orientation should be balanced by study of successes or strengths in a "poor" society.

One final point—Third World studies should try to avoid the impression in pupils' minds that it is all happening "out there" and that it does not affect us. Scotland, and in particular the Strathclyde Region, has perhaps in its own backyard symptoms of individual and communal deprivation redolent of the Third World. Are the parallels too far-fetched? As the cartoons below show, there are problems for the "over-developed" nations as well.

Aid

The Times 13/12/74

World Food Crisis: Rome

"It's a WORLD food problem —look how worried the British were about icing sugar for Christmas . . ."

Sunday Mirror 17/12/74

SCOTTISH CENTRE FOR SOCIAL SUBJECTS

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